Province of British Columbia
Ministry of Energy, Mines and
Petroleum Resources

MINERAL RESOURCES DIVISION
Geological Survey Branch

THE IDENTIFICATION OF COMMON ROCKS

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The Identification of Common Rocks

INTRODUCTION

The entire earth's surface is made up of rocks. Although in many places the rocks are covered with river, wind or glacially deposited materials, there are few places in British Columbia where rocks cannot be found. A large number of different rock types exist. The identification of common rocks may, however, be complicated by the fact that certain rock types grade into each other. For example there is every gradation between a shale and a sandstone — including sandy shale and shaly sandstone, and also between granite and gabbro. In addition a single rock type may vary in appearance.

The booklet deals mainly with rock types found in British Columbia and is therefore addressed to British Columbia readers. The rocks of this province are however not unique, and the principles used here can be applied anywhere. The geology of British Columbia is fascinating; it is complex, many processes are at work, and there are a great variety of rocks. Rocks are an integral part of the landscape; being able to identify them can greatly enhance your enjoyment of the natural world.

Before starting to identity rocks it is helpful to know a little about what rocks are, how they are formed, and how they are classified. These topics are dealt with in the next few pages. A brief discussion of the major rock groups — **igneous, sedimentary** and **metamorphic,** and their most common forms — is also included.

Rocks are precisely classified using various properties which are determined by petrologists using microscopes and other complicated and sophisticated equipment . More approximate, "field" terms are used by geologists in the field and this booklet describes ways to look at and **identify rocks in outcrop.** The purpose of this booklet is to aid the non-specialist to easily identify the rocks, using simple techniques which can be applied in the field or at home. The methods used assume little prior knowledge and the **equipment** required is limited to:

- a rock hammer to break off pieces of rock
- a pocket knife
- a hand lens or magnifying glass with 6 to 10 power magnification
- a dropper bottle of dilute hydrochloric acid (5 parts of concentrated acid in 100 parts of water).

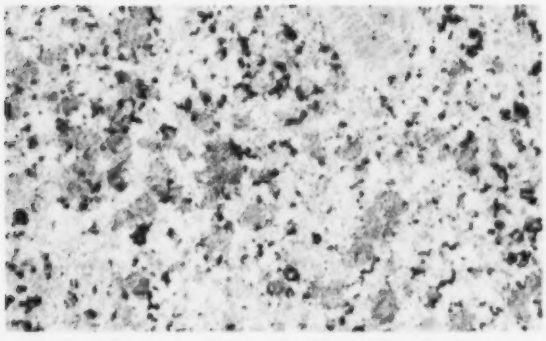
The booklet is not a textbook, it deals only with identifying common rocks, and as such does not dwell on the geology of the rocks or where and how they occur. A number of introductory geology textbooks are listed at the back of the booklet, for those who wish to pursue the study of rocks and geology in general in more detail.

WHAT ARE ROCKS?

A great variety of definitions have been applied to rocks. For example, engineers may define rocks as materials which must be blasted to make dams, roads and so on, while a builder may define a rock as a hard, resistant building material. Geologists, however, define rocks as **collections or aggregates of mineral grains.** Most rocks fall into this category; however, there are exceptions, such as conglomerate, which is made up of pebbles which are themselves mineral aggregates; obsidian, which is a volcanic glass that cooled so fast that no crystals had time to form; and coal, which is an aggregate of plant material as opposed to mineral matter. A large number of mineral types may be present in a rock, for example quartz, feldspar and muscovite in granite, or the entire rock may be made up of many grains of a single mineral, for example quartz in some sandstones (see Figure 1). Rock generally refers to aggregates of mineral grains that are **coherent** in other words, the grains stay together and don't disintegrate under normal conditions; thus sand and mud, which disaggregate, are not rocks.

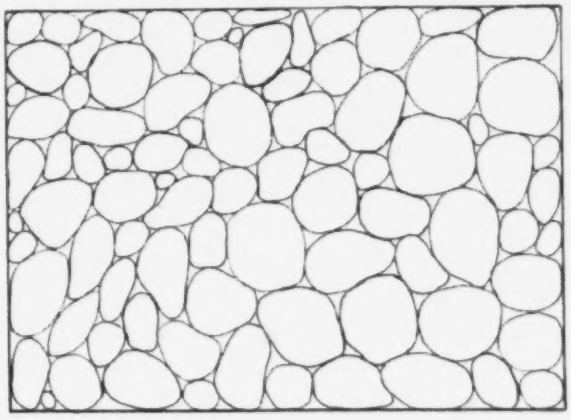
Mineral grains have various shapes and are held together in a rock in a number of ways. Minerals can be rounded or irregular in shape. The **rounded** grains are held together by cement, just as sand grains are cemented together to form sandstone. Irregular or angular shaped grains are **interlocking** and this is how grains in granite or gabbro are held together (see Figure 2). These features are important tools in classifying rocks and assigning them to one of the three major rock groups. As will be discussed following, **sedimentary** rocks are made up of fragments of pre-existing

(1A) all the same mineral

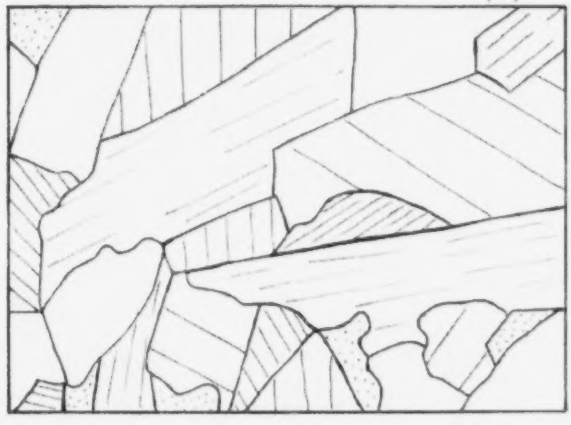


(1 B) different minerals

Figure 1. Aggregates of minerals: (A) all the same mineral and (B) different minerals.



(2A)



(2B)

Figure 2. Rock held together by (A) cemented and (B) interlocked grains.

rocks which have been weathered and eroded. The rocks which result have rounded grains held together by mineral cements. **Igneous** and **metamorphic** rocks on the other hand crystallized at high temperatures and the minerals are interlocking and irregular.

While rocks consist of aggregates of minerals, **minerals** themselves are made up of **one or a number of chemical elements** with a definite chemical composition. Minerals cannot be broken down into smaller units with different chemical compositions in the way that rocks can. More than two thousand three hundred different types of minerals have been identified, luckily many are rare; the common rocks are made up of a relatively small number of minerals.

Since minerals are the building blocks of rocks, it is important that you learn to identify the most common varieties. Minerals can be distinguished using various physical and/or chemical characteristics, but, since chemistry cannot be determined readily in the field, geologists use the physical attributes of minerals to identify them. These include features such as crystal **form, hardness** (relative to a steel blade or your fingernail), **colour, lustre** and **streak** (the colour when a mineral is ground to a powder). More detailed explanations of these terms and other aspects of mineral identification may be found in the guidebooks listed on the last page of this booklet. Generally the characteristics listed above can only be determined if the mineral grains are visible in a rock. The **identification flowchart (see** Figure 5) distinguishes between **rocks in which the grains are visible and those in which the individual mineral components are too small to identify.**

COMMON ROCK-FORMING MINERALS

A small number of minerals, including olivine, quartz, feldspar, mica, pyroxene and amphibole, are the common rock-forming minerals. Because they are so common, and are used as important **tools in classifying igneous rocks,** descriptions which will help you to identify them are included in this booklet. Except for quartz, all the minerals listed above are actually groups of minerals which have many common characteristics. Instead of trying to separate all the minerals which make up a certain group, they are dealt with here as a single mineral with common characteristics.

Olivine: Olivine, or peridot in the jewelry trade, is yellow-green, translucent and glassy looking. Crystals are uncommon; it usually occurs as rounded grains in igneous rocks or as granular masses. Olivine is almost as hard as quartz; it does not have a well-developed cleavage.

Quartz: Quartz is a glassy looking, transparent or translucent mineral which varies in colour from white and grey to smoky. When there are individual crystals they are generally clear, while in larger masses quartz looks more milky white. Quartz is hard — it can easily scratch a steel knife blade. In the rock, quartz grains are irregular in shape because crystal faces are rare and quartz does not have a cleavage (that is, it does not break on regular flat faces).

(3A) quartz

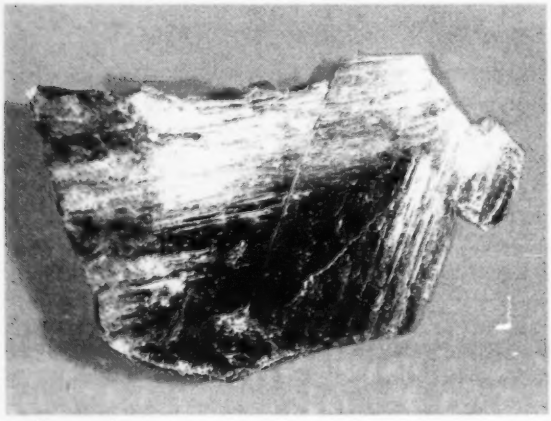
Figure 3. Common rock-forming minerals: (A) quartz, (B) feldspar, (C) mica, (D) pyroxene and (E) amphibole.

Feldspar: Feldspar is the other common, light-coloured rock-forming mineral. Instead of being glassy like quartz, it is generally dull to opaque with a porcelain-like appearance. Colour varies from red, pink and white (orthoclase), to green, grey and white (plagioclase). Feldspar is also hard but can be scratched by quartz. Feldspar in igneous rocks forms well-developed crystals which are roughly rectangular in shape, and they cleave or break along flat faces. The grains, in contrast to quartz, often have straight edges and flat rectangular faces, some of which may meet at right angles.

0 2 cm

(3B) feldspar

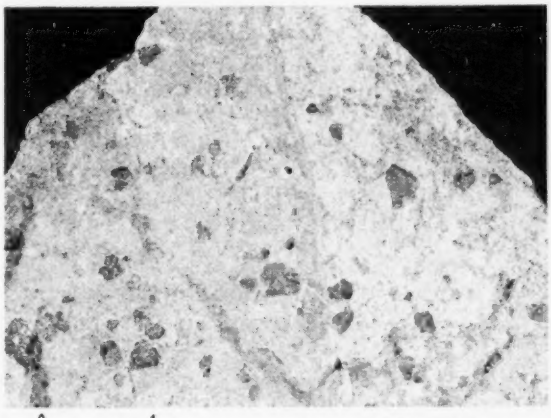
Mica: Mica is easily distinguished by its characteristic of peeling into many thin flat smooth sheets or flakes. This is similar to the cleavage in feldspar except that in the case of mica the cleavage planes are in only one direction and no right angle face joins occur. Mica may be white and pearly — muscovite, or dark and shiny — biotite.



0 2 cm

(3C) mica

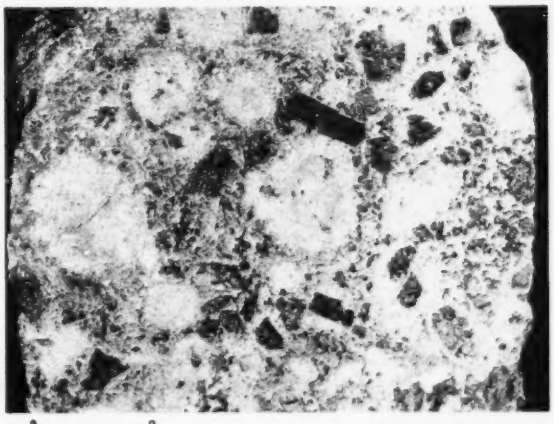
Pyroxene: The most common pyroxene mineral is augite. Augite is generally dark green to black in colour and forms short, stubby crystals which, if you look at an end-on section, have square or rectangular cross-sections.



0 1 cm

(3D) pyroxene

Amphibole: The most common amphibole is hornblende. Hornblende is quite similar to augite in that both are dark minerals, however hornblende crystals are generally longer and thinner and shinier than augite and the mineral cross-sections are diamond shaped.



0 2 cm

(3E) amphibole

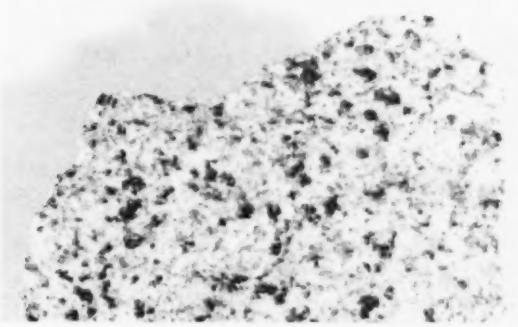
Quartz and feldspar are light-coloured minerals; mica, pyroxene and amphibole are dark coloured. The colour of a rock will be determined by the proportions of light and dark-coloured minerals present. If most of the grains are quartz and feldspar then the overall appearance of the rock will be light, while the opposite will be true if the minerals are mainly mica, pyroxene and amphibole. The colour of a rock with between 25 and 50% dark minerals is intermediate.

ROCK CLASSIFICATION

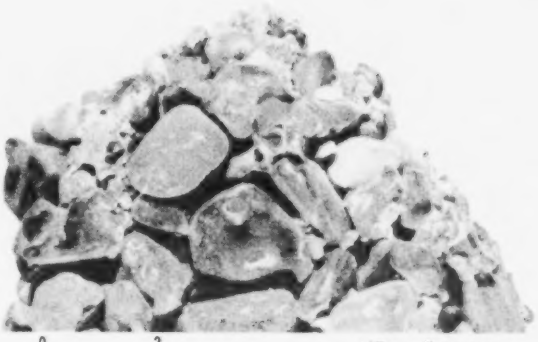
Rocks are classified or grouped together as igneous, sedimentary and metamorphic according to how they were formed. Rocks form in three main ways: **igneous** — by crystallization of minerals from molten material or magma as it cooled; **sedimentary** --- by accumulation of materials which have been eroded and weathered from pre-existing rocks at the earth's surface; **metamorphi c** — by modification of pre-existing rocks by heat, pressure or the action of chemical solutions.

Every rock has characteristics that reflect its process of formation; these are used to determine whether the rock is igneous, sedimentary or metamorphic (see Figure 4). For example, a rock with rounded grains cemented together is sedimentary, while one with a strong banding and orientation of the minerals is metamorphic. Identification of rock types within the three divisions depends on the nature of the mineral grains, including their composition and size and relationship to surrounding grains; the way the rock occurs; how uniform it is; its hardness; how it reacts with acid; its colour; and the way in which it breaks. Before trying to identify a rock, break a piece off with a rock hammer. This will expose a clean, fresh surface. (WARNING — **do not use a carpenter's hammer, they are hardened steel and will chip.)**

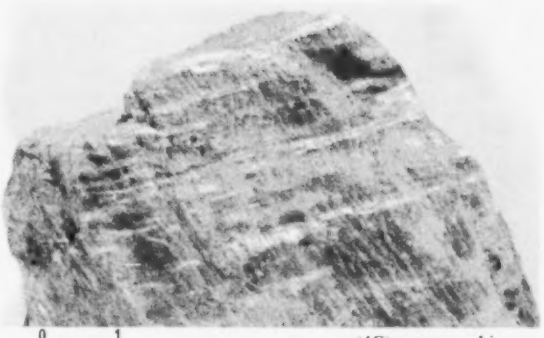
When a rock is dirty or covered with lichen many of its characteristics are obscured, preventing you from accurately identifying the rock. Identification of beach pebbles that are smoothed and rounded is not considered here because this booklet deals specifically with fresh surfaces. Many pebbles are relatively easy to identify without breaking, but many are extremely difficult, and breaking usually destroys their interest and charm. As a rule a pebble catches the eye and is picked up because it is an object which shows some special effect of colour or pattern, often due to layering, veining or alteration. Such pebbles are not good examples of common rock types.



(4A) igneous



(4B) sedimentary



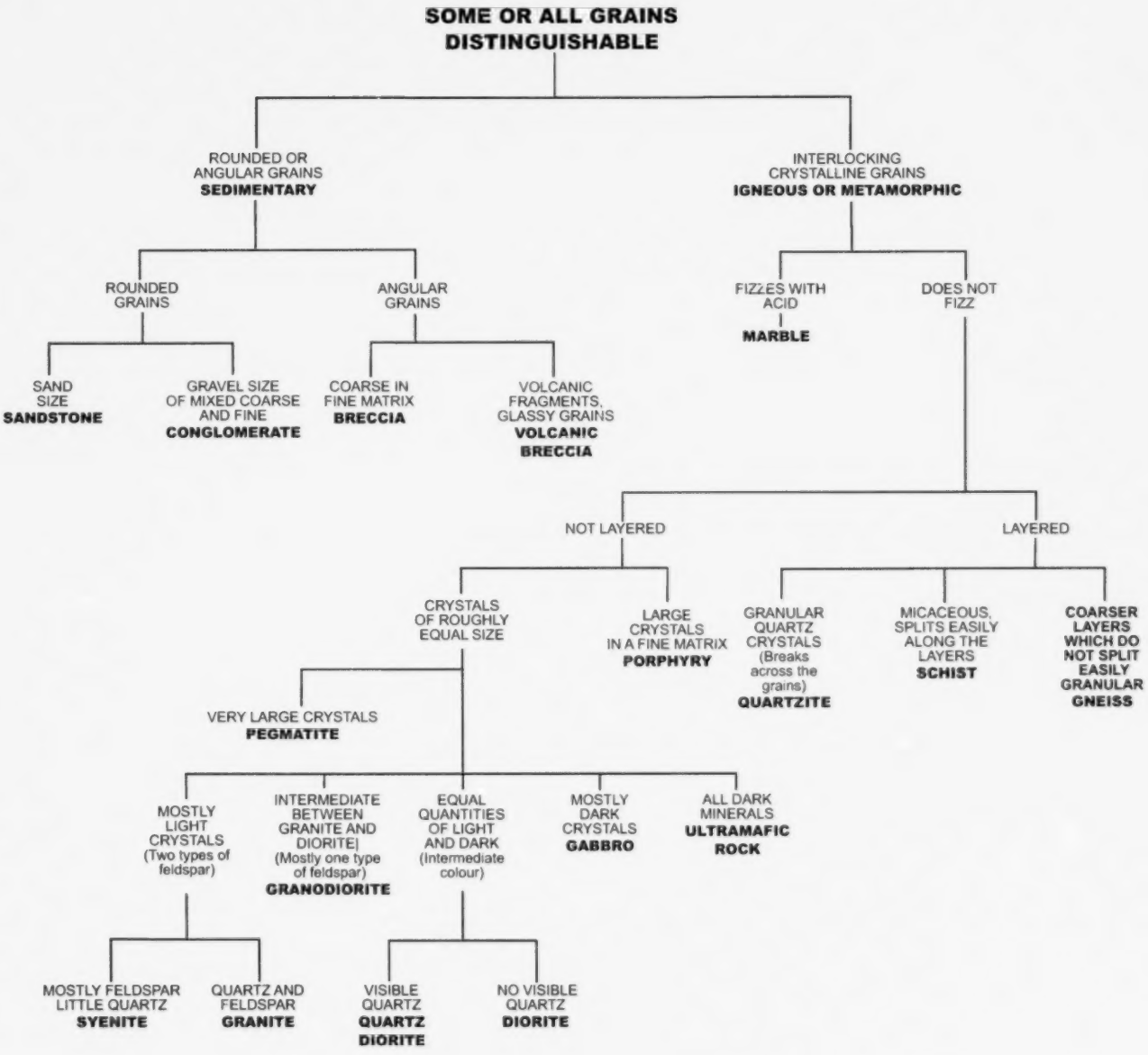
(4C) metamorphic

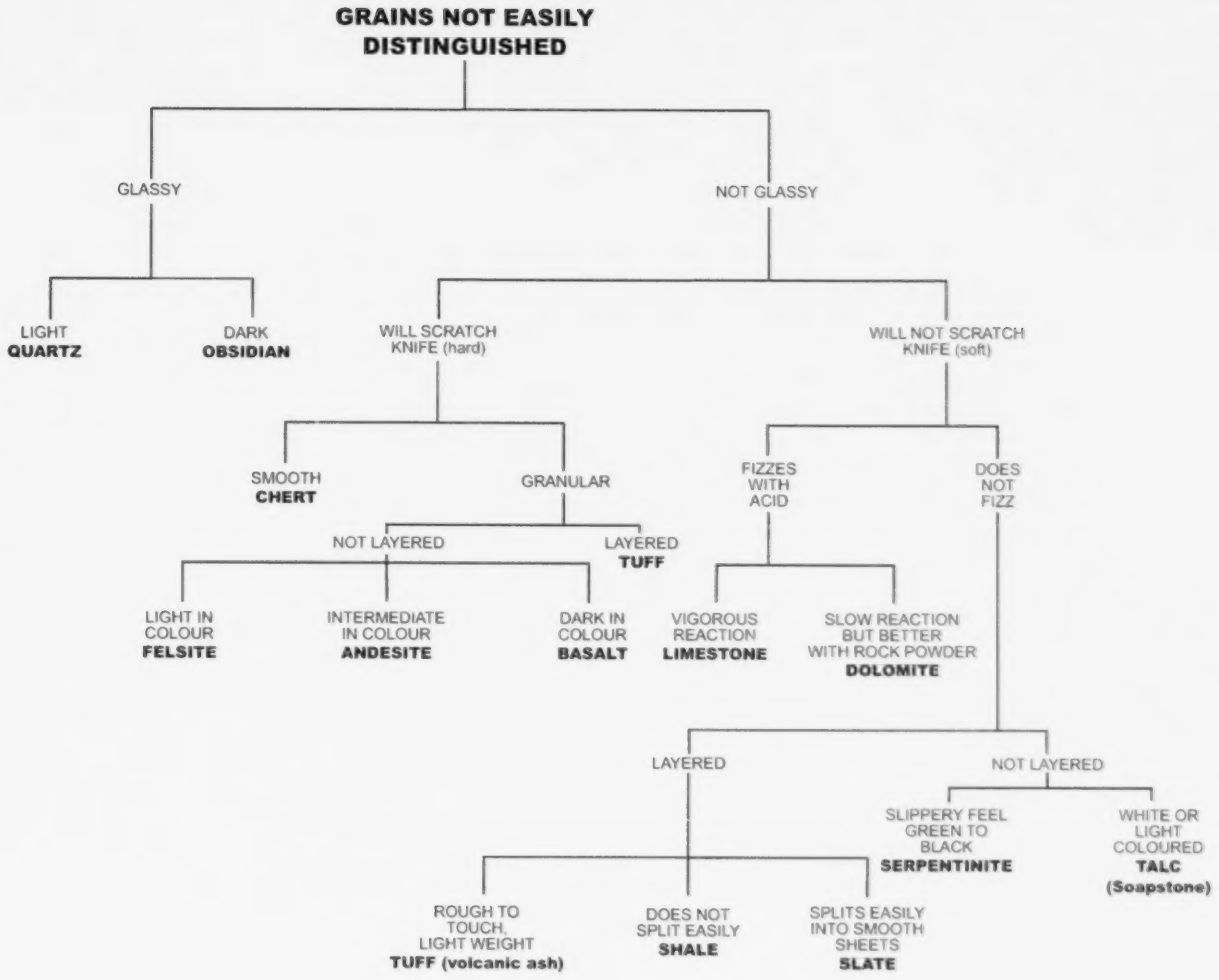
Figure 4. Appearances vary for (A) igneous, (B) sedimentary and (C) metamorphic rocks.

KEY TO USING THE ROCK IDENTIFICATION CHART

To identify a rock which is of interest, first, take a fresh surface and examine it carefully with the naked eye. Starting at the top of the chart, decide whether the grains which make up the rock can be distinguished or not. Where some of the grains can be seen, for example a rock in which there are a number of large grains in a very fine matrix, go to the right side and proceed from there. From here on use a hand lens and, where it is required, a knife or dilute hydrochloric acid (5%). Follow the flow lines downward and at each branching check all the possible options and decide which one most closely fits your specimen. Continue downwards until you come to a rock name. Check the rock description in the igneous, sedimentary and metamorphic sections of the booklet and if the features and the way the rock occurs fit your sample — BRAVO! Otherwise go back to the chart and check for alternative choices at places where you may have been unsure of your observations; rocks vary so don't be surprised or discouraged if this happens.

Figure 5. Rock Identification Chart


SOME OR ALL GRAINS DISTINGUISHABLE
ROUNDED OR ANGULAR GRAINS SEDIMENTARY
INTERLOCKING CRYSTALLINE GRAINS IGNEOUS OR METAMORPHIC
ROUNDED GRAINS
ANGULAR GRAINS
FIZZES WITH ACID
DOES NOT FIZZ
MARBLE
SAND SIZE SANDSTONE
GRAVEL SIZE OF MIXED COARSE AND FINE CONGLOMERATE
COARSE IN FINE MATRIX BRECCIA
VOLCANIC FRAGMENTS, GLASSY GRAINS VOLCANIC BRECCIA
NOT LAYERED
LAYERED
CRYSTALS OF ROUGHLY EQUAL SIZE
LARGE CRYSTALS IN A FINE MATRIX PORPHYRY
GRANULAR QUARTZ CRYSTALS (Breaks across the grains) QUARTZITE
MICACEOUS, SPLITS EASILY ALONG THE LAYERS SCHIST
COARSER LAYERS WHICH DO NOT SPLIT EASILY GRANULAR GNEISS
VERY LARGE CRYSTALS PEGMATITE
MOSTLY LIGHT CRYSTALS (Two types of feldspar)
INTERMEDIATE BETWEEN GRANITE AND DIORITE (Mostly one type of feldspar) GRANODIORITE
EQUAL QUANTITIES OF LIGHT AND DARK (Intermediate colour)
MOSTLY DARK CRYSTALS GABBRO
ALL DARK MINERALS ULTRAMAFIC ROCK
MOSTLY FELDSPAR LITTLE QUARTZ SYENITE
QUARTZ AND FELDSPAR GRANITE
VISIBLE QUARTZ QUARTZ DIORITE
NO VISIBLE QUARTZ DIORITE


GRAINS NOT EASILY DISTINGUISHED
GLASSY
NOT GLASSY
LIGHT
QUARTZ
DARK
OBSIDIAN
WILL SCRATCH KNIFE (hard)
WILL NOT SCRATCH KNIFE (soft)
SMOOTH
CHERT
GRANULAR
FIZZES WITH ACID
DOES NOT FIZZ
NOT LAYERED
LAYERED
TUFF
LIGHT IN COLOUR
FELSITE
INTERMEDIATE IN COLOUR
ANDESITE
DARK IN COLOUR
BASALT
VIGOROUS REACTION
LIMESTONE
SLOW REACTION BUT BETTER WITH ROCK POWDER
DOLOMITE
LAYERED
NOT LAYERED
SLIPPERY FEEL GREEN TO BLACK
SERPENTINITE
WHITE OR LIGHT COLOURED
TALC
(Soapstone)
ROUGH TO TOUCH, LIGHT WEIGHT
TUFF (volcanic ash)
DOES NOT SPLIT EASILY
SHALE
SPLITS EASILY INTO SMOOTH SHEETS
SLATE

Igneous rock forms as molten material, called **magma,** cools and solidifies. As the hot magma rises to the surface and cools the chemical elements within it combine, and minerals begin to crystallize. As cooling continues, crystals get larger and more numerous and begin to interfere with the neighbouring crystals which are also growing; the result is a mass of partially formed and interlocking crystals. If cooling is slow minerals with sharp edges and perfect faces are rare; normally so many form at once that they don't have room to grow in this way.

Magma when it cools deep within the earth cools very slowly, allowing the crystals to grow to be quite large, 3 to 10 millimetres or more. This results in a medium or coarse-grained igneous rock — termed **intrusive or plutonic.** Examples of this type of rock are granite or gabbro. If on the other hand the magma cools close to or at the earth's surface. as for example in the Hawaiian volcanoes, cooling takes place very rapidly allowing little time for crystal growth. This type of igneous rock — **volcanic or extrusive** — will be very fine grained. An example is basalt. In some cases the magma cools so quickly that no crystals grow and volcanic glass results. Another common scenario is where cooling of the magma begins deep inside the earth where a number of quite large crystals grow, then is moved nearer to the surface where it is cooled rapidly. The resulting rock has some large, well-formed crystals sitting within a fine-grained matrix; it is called a porphyry. The large crystals are called phenocrysts.

A large number of igneous rocks exist and they grade from one type into another. **Classification** schemes are usually based on the types and amounts of minerals present (see Figure 6), and the size of the crystals. While the compositional variations of the rock groups are important to petrologists, here we will only introduce you to the basic rock types.

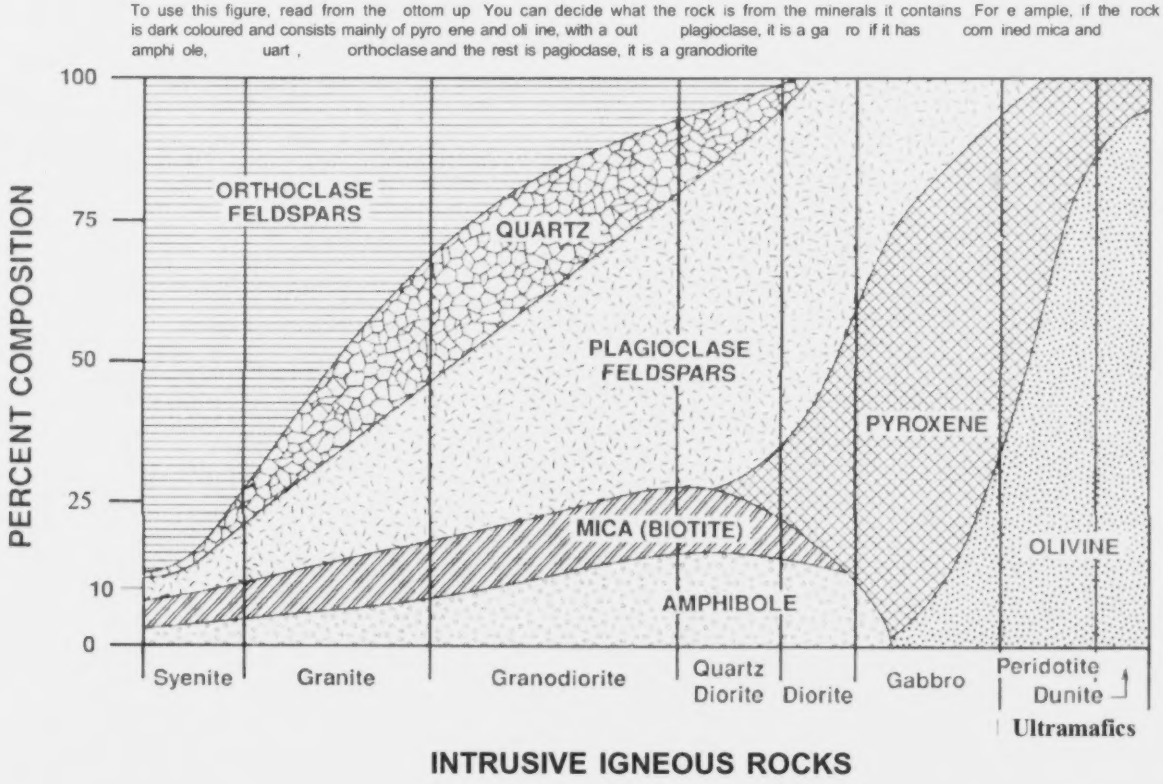

To use this figure, read from the ottom up You can decide what the rock is from the minerals it contains For e ample, if the rock is dark coloured and consists mainly of pyro ene and oli ine, with a out plagioclase, it is a ga ro if it has com ined mica and amphi ole, uart , orthoclase and the rest is pagioclase, it is a granodiorite
PERCENT COMPOSITION
100
75
50
25
10
0
ORTHOCLASE FELDSPARS
QUARTZ
PLAGIOCLASE FELDSPARS
PYROXENE
MICA (BIOTITE)
OLIVINE
AMPHIBOLE
Syenite
Granite
Granodiorite
Quartz Diorite
Diorite
Gabbro
Peridotite Dunite
Ultramafics
INTRUSIVE IGNEOUS ROCKS

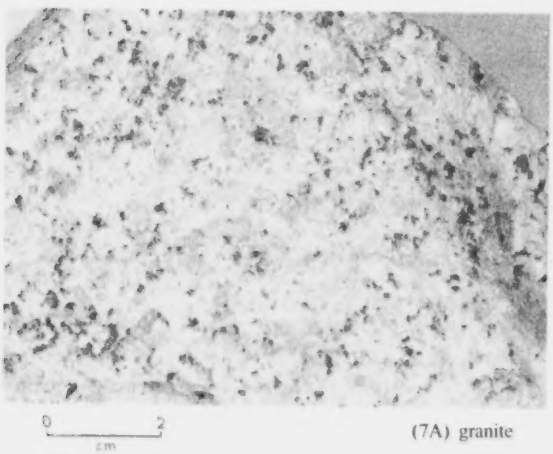
Figure 6. Classification of igneous rocks by mineral composition.

INTRUSIVE OR PLUTONIC ROCKS

Intrusive rocks, because they crystallized at depth, are completely crystalline, generally unlayered, and consist of interlocking crystals that are **medium to coarse grained.** Differing proportions of light and dark minerals result in a colour range from light to dark. These colour variations, and the presence or absence of quartz, are used to distinguish the different kinds of intrusive rocks (see Figures 6 and 7).

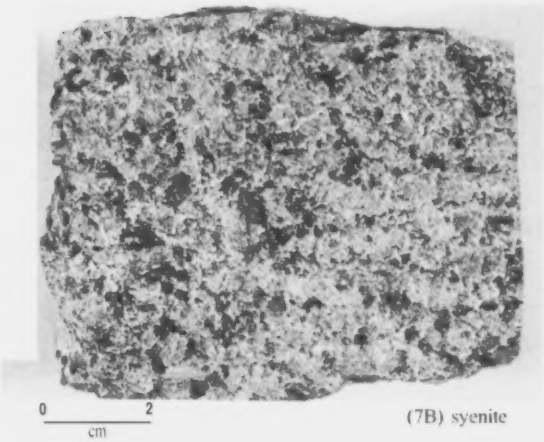
Most igneous rocks are of intermediate composition and colour. These intermediate-coloured intrusive rocks form a series which grades between granite on the light-coloured side, through granodiorite, quartz diorite and diorite to gabbro on the dark side.

Granite: is a pink or greyish coloured, medium to coarse-grained, evenly granular rock which represents the lightest coloured variety of intrusive rock. The grains are mainly white/pink orthoclase feldspar, with lesser amounts of white/grey plagioclase feldspar, and quartz; small amounts of dark biotite and/or hornblende are mixed in with these light mineral components. In some granites, where the feldspar is red in colour, the rock will appear darker. True granite is not common in British Columbia.



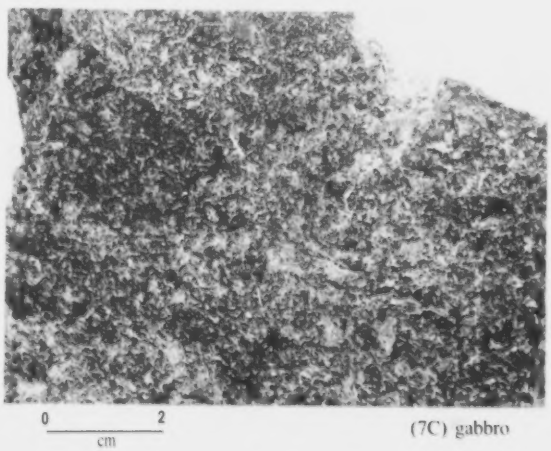
(7A) granite

Syenite: is also light coloured. It is similar to granite except that it contains very few or no quartz grains. It is therefore made up predominantly of interlocking feldspar crystals with minor amounts of mica or hornblende. Syenite is rare in British Columbia. If the crystals are very large (more than 2 centimetres), the rock can be called a pegmatite.



(7B) syenite

Gabbro: is a dark, medium to coarse-grained intrusive rock, containing more than 50% dark crystals and interlocking light crystals. The dark minerals are mainly pyroxene, with minor amounts of hornblende or biotite; the light minerals are usually light grey plagioclase feldspars. Gabbro is not common in British Columbia. If there are NO light crystals at all, the rock is an ultramafic.

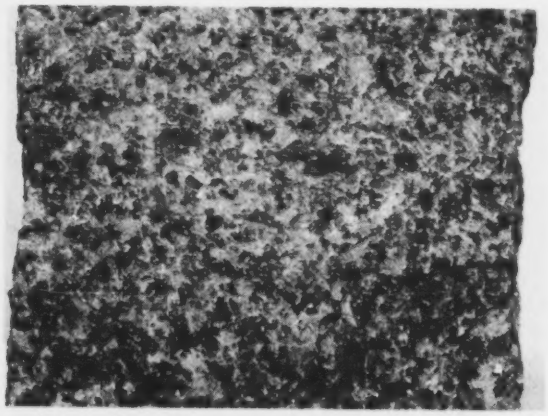


(7C) gabbro

Figure 7. Common slowly cooled igneous rocks of the plutonic or intrusive type are (A) granite, (B) syenite, (C) gabbro, (D) diorite (E) quartz diorite and (F) granodiorite.

Diorite - Quartz Diorite - Granodiorite: These intermediate-coloured intrusive rocks form a series which grades between granodiorite on the light-coloured side, through quartz diorite and **diorite,**

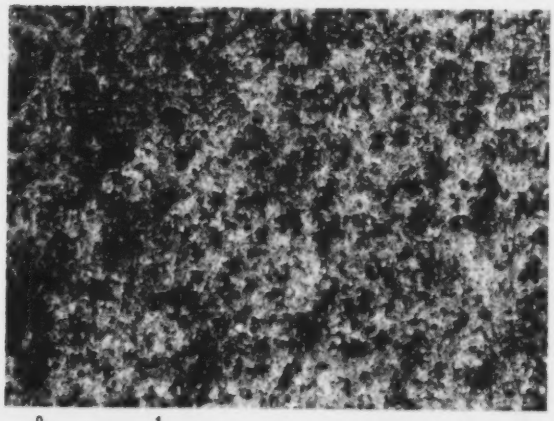
to gabbro on the dark side. The gradation represents an increase in dark minerals, a decrease in quartz, and an increase in the amount of grey plagioclase. The intermediate rocks may be difficult to separate. Only the most common varieties in British Columbia — **quartz diorite and granodiorite** — are discussed here.



0 1 cm

(7D) diorite

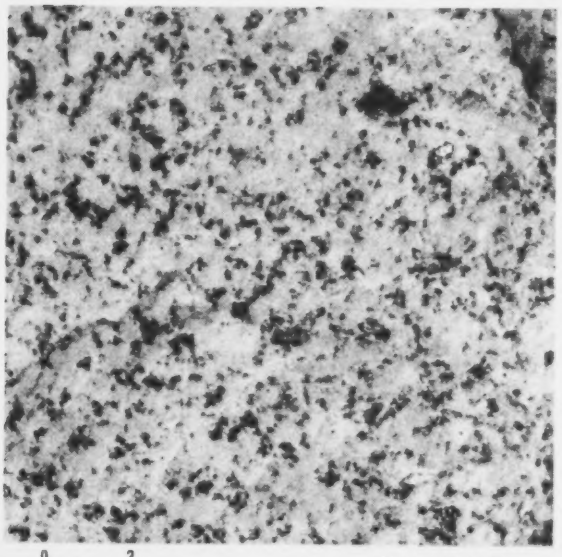
Quartz Diorite: is a medium to dark grey, medium to coarse-grained rock consisting mainly of plagioclase feldspar, some quartz, and abundant dark minerals (roughly a third). If there is no quartz, the rock is diorite.



0 1 cm

(7E) quartz diorite

Granodiorite: falls between granite and quartz diorite; it contains more dark minerals than granite but fewer than quartz diorite. The light-coloured minerals are quartz and feldspar; the feldspar is a mixture of orthoclase and plagioclase.



0 2 cm

(7F) granodiorite

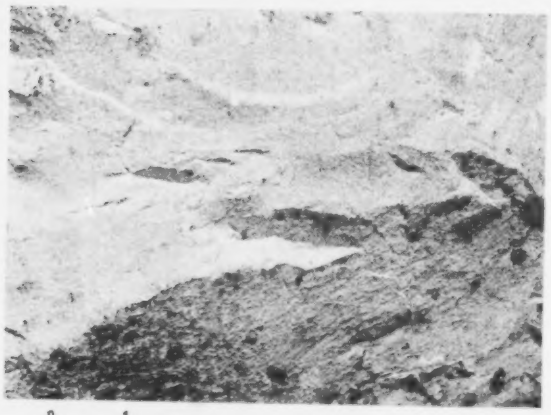
EXTRUSIVE OR VOLCANIC ROCKS

When magma is erupted from volcanic vents at the earth's surface it cools very rapidly and a **fine-grained** rock results. Although the grains may not be clearly visible, generally the rock will still have a granular texture. Different types of volcanic eruptions give rise to different types of volcanic rocks. If magma pours out onto the surface, a **volcanic lava** with flow structures, phenocrysts, and abundant vesicles (or gas bubble cavities) may result.

If the eruption is forceful, like Mauna Loa in Hawaii, or explosive, like Mount St. Helens, the rock formed may consist of a variety of fragments including glass shards, volcanic bombs, ash and pumice. These deposits are commonly layered and are termed **agglomerates or volcanic breccias.** Volcanic rocks form from the same magma as intrusive igneous rocks. Although the crystals are too small to identify without a microscope, they show the same series of mineral gradations and corresponding colour variations as their medium and coarse-grained counterparts (see Figure 8). Volcanic rocks are often difficult to crack with a hammer and break with a rough fracture surface.

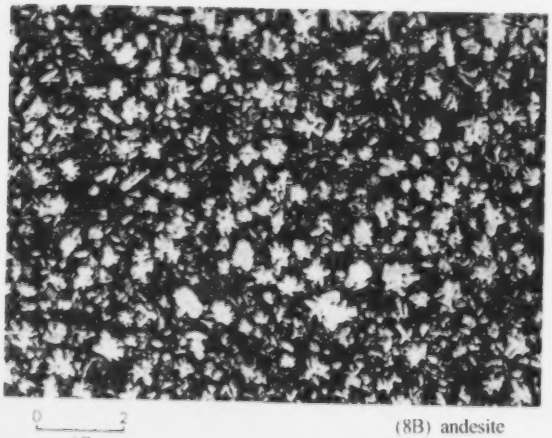
Felsite: is a general term for all light-coloured volcanic rocks. The most common variety, which is the fine-grained or volcanic equivalent of granite, is called rhyolite. Felsites are generally granular, rough to the touch, and in some cases show a series of more or less parallel bands of different colours called flow bands. These may be wavy and swirly

and can therefore be distinguished from sedimentary bedding or metamorphic foliation. Felsites are not common in British Columbia.



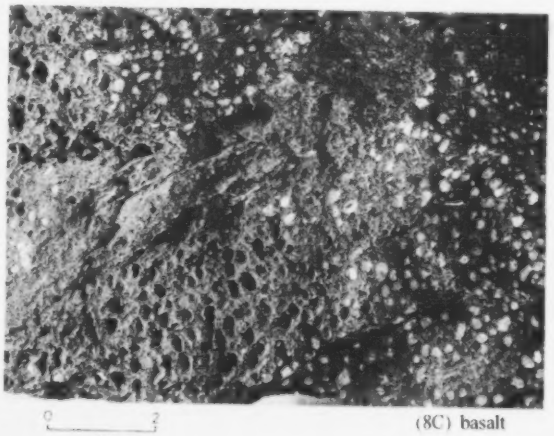
(8A) felsite

Andesite: is intermediate in composition and colour between felsite and basalt; it is the fine-grained, volcanic equivalent of diorite and is generally a dark grey rock consisting mainly of plagioclase feldspar and abundant dark minerals. Colours range from grey and grey-green to red or pink. Andesites are generally porphyritic, that is, they contain some large crystals floating in a fine-grained matrix. In British Columbia andesites are more common than felsites, but less common than basalt.



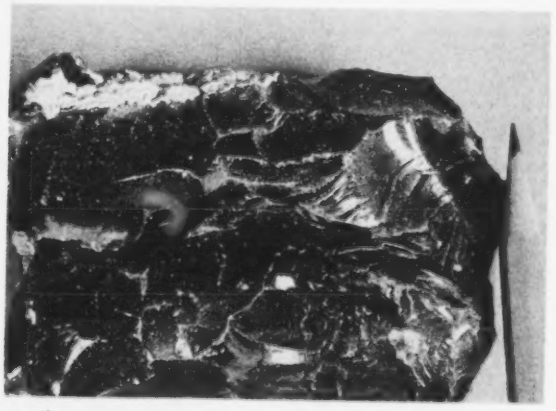
(8B) andesite

Basalt: is a fine-grained, dark-coloured, dense rock which has a dull, granular appearance. Basalt, which is the volcanic equivalent of gabbro, is often porphyritic. Commonly basalt is vesicular, that is, it has holes (vesicles) which were once gas bubbles; later, these holes often fill with mineral matter (amygdules). Basalts which formed by underwater eruptions characteristically develop pillow-like shapes. Basalt is a common rock in British Columbia.



(8C) basalt

Obsidian: is a natural volcanic glass. It is generally dark in colour, with a bright glassy lustre and a conchoidal fracture, that is, it breaks with curved, striated faces like glass. Obsidian is not common in British Columbia.

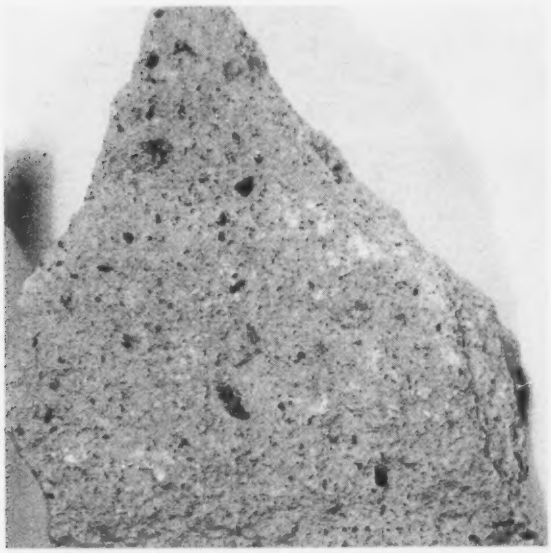


(8D) obsidian

Figure 8. Common quickly cooled igneous rocks of the volcanic or extrusive type are (A) felsite, (B) andesite, (C) basalt, (D) obsidian, (E) volcanic ash (tuff) and (F) volcanic breccia.

Tuff or volcanic ash: contains a variety of small or large angular fragments. Because they were blown out of the volcano and fell through the air, bigger and heavier fragments fell faster and the rocks formed tend to be layered like sedimentary rocks.

Fine-grained accumulations of material are called ash or tuff, and coarser grained deposits, **agglomerates** or **breccias.** The composition of these rocks is variable. Volcanic agglomerates are not very common in British Columbia.



(8E) tuff (volcanic ash)

(8F) volcanic breccia

SEDIMENTARY ROCKS

Sedimentary rocks form at the earth's surface by the action of weathering and erosion of pre-existing rocks. Rocks are gradually broken down by physical and chemical means when they are exposed to the atmosphere. Wind-blown particles abrade; rain pounds and the rainwater dissolves some parts; alternate freezing and thawing of water in microcracks break down the surface layer; gravity and weather shift unstable particles down slope and they abrade or break other rocks that they hit. Catastrophic events also occur: earthquakes trigger massive rockslides; floods move huge amounts of materials and undercut their banks; volcanos blast cubic kilometres of rock into rubble.

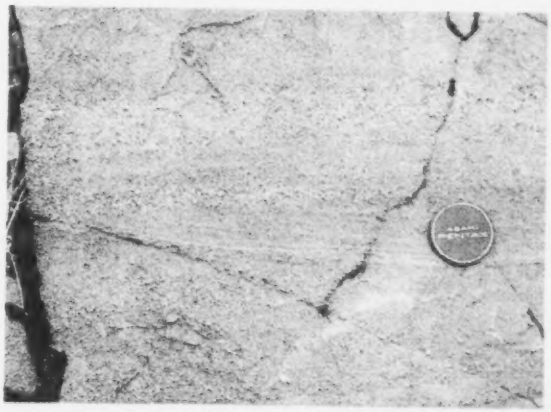
Broken rocks, grains and dissolved materials wash into rivers and are carried or rolled downstream. Particles are abraded and gradually rounded off as they grind together like pebbles in a lapidary tumbler. When the rivers enter lakes or the ocean, particles are dropped and dissolved materials tend to deposit as fine precipitates of mud or ooze. Particles vary in size from boulders through gravel and sand to silt and mud. Sediment may also be transported by glacial ice or the wind.

The deposited materials, when other layers of transported sediment are added on top, become compacted and mineral matter precipitates from trapped water and **cements** the grains together forming sedimentary rocks. Because sedimentary rocks are formed by the accumulation of layers of deposited material, they very often have a **layered appearance.** Sedimentary rocks may have various other structures apparent within them, such as ripples, animal burrows or plant roots. Often plants and animal remains drop into and become buried in the accumulating sediment, becoming **fossils.**

Conglomerate: is a cemented-together gravel that consists mostly of rounded rock fragments which are greater than 2 millimetres in size. The spaces between the grains are filled with varying amounts of fine-grained material or cement. Conglomerate, as with most sedimentary rocks, is laid down in layers, however, these layers are often so thick that they are not visible in an isolated outcrop.

(9A) conglomerate

Sandstone: consists of rounded sand grains cemented together; it is one of the most common sedimentary rocks. A sandstone may contain obvious layers (bedding) or lines at angles to the layers (cross-bedding), but in some cases the beds are too far apart to see in one exposure, as is the case with conglomerate.



(9C) sandstone

Breccia: is similar to conglomerate in that it consists of coarse-grained fragments surrounded by finer grained material. The fragments in a breccia, however, are sharp and angular, looking as if they were just broken, while those in conglomerates are rounded.

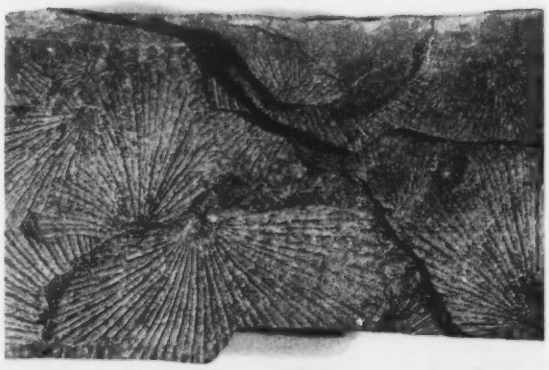
(9B) breccia

Shale: has the appearance of earthy, hard, mud or clay, which is not surprising since shale is a compacted version of these materials. Shales vary in colour but are generally grey to black or brown. Shale is a soft rock and can easily be scratched with a knife. When hit with a hammer, a mark will remain and the rock breaks into chunks as opposed to sheets (as would be the case for metamorphosed shale — slate). The beds in shale are usually thin, flat and of uniform thickness.

(9D) shale

Figure 9. Some common sedimentary rocks are (A) conglomerate, (B) breccia, (C) sandstone, (D) shale, (E) fossiliferous limestone, (F) dolomite and (G)

Limestone: is a white, grey or black, fine-grained rock which fizzes **vigorously** when a drop of dilute hydrochloric acid is put on it. It commonly contains fossils, such as shells or other animal remains, and in some cases the fossils may make up most of the rock. When limestone is hit with a hammer it may give off a sulphurous smell. Calcite is the dominant constituent in limestones and it is the material which causes the rock to effervesce in acid. Calcite is also a common material in other sedimentary rocks, where it can occur in fossils or in veins and fracture coatings. For this reason one must be careful when testing for a reaction to acid, and put the drop of acid on a fresh rock surface which does not contain fossils or veins.



0 3 cm

(9E) fossiliferous limestone

Dolomite: looks very much like limestone except that it is generally tan in colour and fizzes **weakly** if at all when a drop of cold dilute hydrochloric acid is put on it. If dolomite is ground to a powder or hot acid is applied, it will fizz strongly. Limestone and dolomite also weather differently: weathered dolomite often becomes brown or reddish and rough and finely angular; limestone, on the other hand, weathers smooth and light grey or white.

0 3 cm

(9F) dolomite

Chert: is a hard, compact, dense, brittle rock which generally varies in colour from white, through light grey to dark grey. The appearance is waxy and smooth; quartz, with which chert might be confused, is glassy. When struck with a hammer, chert breaks with a conchoidal fracture, like broken glass, or shatters into splinters. These properties result because chert consists of very fine-grained silica. Chert occurs as nodules or irregular bands in limestone, or as thin beds or ribbon-shaped layers separated by thin films of shale.

0 2 cm

(9G) chert

NOTE: For sedimentary rocks, which are classified mainly on the basis of grain size, all **gradations** between each category are found. This means that you may encounter a sandy conglomerate or a muddy sandstone. Gradations should be kept in mind when classifying these rocks.

METAMORPHIC ROCKS

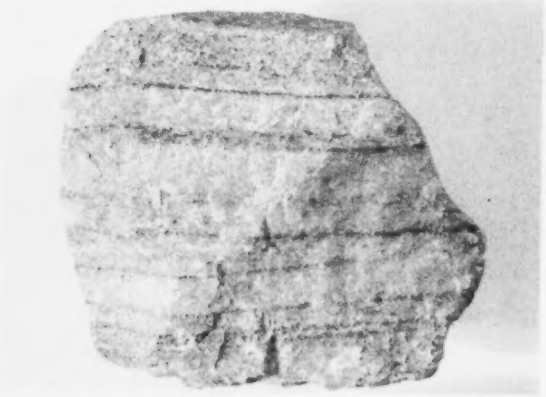
Metamorphic rocks (see Figure 10) form when pre-existing rocks are subjected either to **elevated temperatures or pressures,** or to the actions of chemically active solutions. One or more of the following changes take place:

a) the rock recrystallizes to form a coarser grained rock

b) new minerals form overgrowths on the original minerals

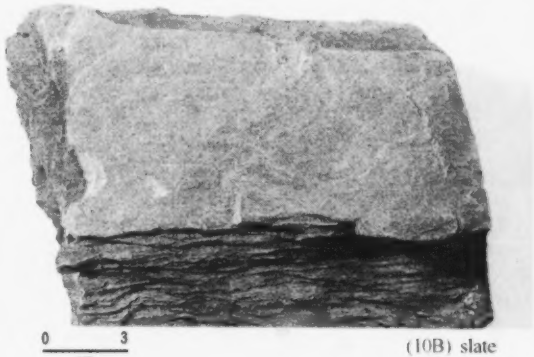
c) a foliation or strong banding develops, along which the rock splits into sheets, bands or flakes. Foliation is caused by the orientation of flattish or elongate minerals on a planar surface.

Quartzite: is metamorphosed quartz sandstone. It is a very hard, sugary textured rock that consists of interlocking quartz grains. The original quartz sand grains are also enclosed in and bound together by quartz cement. This makes the rock hard; when hammered, it breaks across the grains and cement as opposed to around the grains as is the case in sandstones. Freshly broken faces have a glassy appearance. Quartzite is generally light in colour but impurities such as mica are common and any gradation between quartzite and schist, which is described following, may occur. Quartzite may retain some of the original bedding of the sandstone.



(10A) quartzite

Slate: is the metamorphic product of shale. Slate is a fine-grained brittle rock which splits readily into thin smooth-faced layers or sheets. Slates are generally dark grey, green or black in colour, but may also be red or brown. Individual grains cannot be distinguished with the naked eye. The term argillite refers to rocks with characteristics intermediate between shale and slate; they are harder than shale but do not break into sheets like slate.



(10B) slate

Marble: is limestone or dolomite that has recrystallized due to metamorphism. It is a light-coloured rock and consists of medium to coarse-grained interlocking calcite or dolomite crystals. A marble formed of calcite crystals will fizz with dilute acid and a dolomite marble will fizz if powdered or reacted with hot or concentrated acid. Darker streaks are often present in marble as are calcite veins. Marble scratches easily with a knife.

(10C) marble

Figure 10. Common metamorphic rocks include (A) quartzite, (B) slate, (C) marble, (D) schist, (E) gneiss, (F) serpentinite crossed by an asbestos vein and (G) talc.

Schist: is a metamorphic rock which is intermediate between slate and gneiss. The rock has layers consisting of aligned mica or mica-like minerals which give the rock a glistening appearance. It splits readily along these layers and the broken faces usually consist of wavy or lens-shaped slabs or flakes rather than thin sheets.

0 2 cm

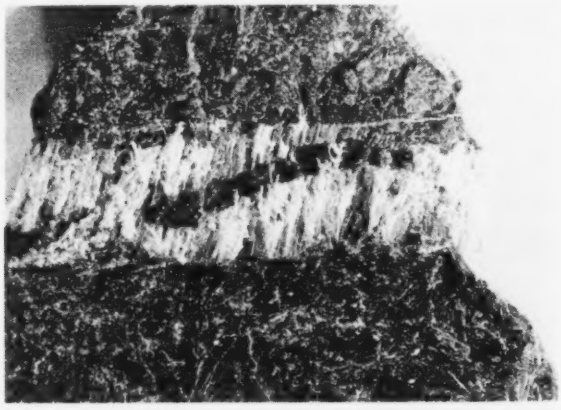
(10D) schist

Gneiss: is a medium to coarse-grained, banded, granular metamorphic rock. Distinct colour bands or streaks are produced by the alternation of layers of light and dark-coloured minerals. The layers do not split readily and when broken are not smooth. Gneiss may form from diorite, granite, shale, sandstone, schist or other rocks.

0 2 cm

(10E) gneiss

Serpentinite: is an oily looking green to black fine-grained rock that can be scratched easily with a knife. In many places it is highly sheared and breaks into scaly fragments with smooth shiny faces and a slippery feel. At thin edges the fragments tend to be translucent. Serpentinite is composed of the mineral serpentine. Soapstone is a rock composed of the mineral talc and can be mistaken for serpentine. Soapstone, however, is usually light green to grey in colour and soft enough to be scratched with the fingernail.



0 2 cm

serpentinite crossed by an asbestos vein

0 2 cm

(10G) talc

ADDITIONAL READING

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS OF INTEREST

Field Guide Identification Booklets *(1986* prices quoted):

The Larousse Guide to Minerals, Rocks and Fossils, W.R. Hamilton, A.R. Woolley and A.C. Bishop, ***Larousse and Co. Inc., New*** York. $13.95

Rocks and Minerals, Zim, Shaffer and Perlman, A Golden Nature Guide, ***Simon and Schuster,*** New York. **$4.95**

A Field Guide to Rocks and Minerals, F.H. Pough, ***Houghton Mifflin Co.,*** Boston. $18.95

The Autobon Society Field Guide to North American Rocks and Minerals, ***Knopf. $19.50***

Simon and Schusters' Guide to Rocks and Minerals, ***Simon and Schuster. $18.50***

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

B.C. Geological Highway Map, Province of British Columbia, ***B.C. Ministry of Energy Mines and Petroleum Resources*** — available through the Geological Association of Canada, Vancouver. $4.50

An Introduction to Prospecting, ***B.C. Ministry of Energy, Mines and Petroleum Resources,*** Paper 1986-4. Available from the Ministry, Publications Section, 552 Michigan Street, Victoria, B.C. $10.00

* Geology and Canada, ***Geological Survey of Canada*** Publication. Free.

* Rock and Mineral Collecting in British Columbia, S. Learning, ***Geological Survey of Canada*** Paper 72-53. $2.75

* Rocks: Minerals: Fossils: and Gemstones, ***Geological Survey of Canada*** Publication. Free.

* Available from Information Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0S9 or the Geological Survey of Canada, 601 Booth Street, Ottawa, K1A 0E8.

BASIC GEOLOGY TEXTBOOKS

Earth, F. Press and R. Siever, ***W.H. Freeman and Co., 1986. $46.15***

Principles of Geology, J. Gillully, A.C. Waters and A.O. Woodford, ***W.H. Freeman and Co., 1974. $U.S. 30.95***

Physical Geology, C.C. Plummer and D. McGeary, ***W.M.C. Brown Publishers. $27.70***

Essentials of Geology, F.K. Lutgers and E.J. Tarbuch, ***Merrill Publishing, 1986.*** $U.S. 18.95

Queen's Printer for British Columbia
Victoria, 1987

Province of British Columbia
Ministry of Energy, Mines and Petroleum Resources

INDUSTRIAL MINERALS IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

INFORMATION CIRCULAR 1989-2

GEOLOGICAL SURVEY BRANCH
INDUSTRIAL MINERALS PROGRAMS
1985-1988

INTRODUCTION

British Columbia is well endowed with a variety of industrial minerals. The annual value of their production, together with structural materials, varies between 10 and 15 per cent of the combined value of minerals, coal, petroleum and natural gas, and has been steadily increasing since 1960 (Figure 1). In 1986 there was reported production of 13 industrial mineral commodities with a total value of $132 million; structural materials produced accounted for an additional $235 million. The inventory of industrial mineral resources in British Columbia is the responsibility of the Industrial Minerals Subsection of the Geological Survey Branch. This unit also monitors industry activity and provides assistance to the general public.

This subsection is headed by Z.D. Hora, Industrial Minerals Specialist. G.V. White is a geologist on staff and three contract geologists, S.B. Butrenchuk, P.B. Read and J. Pell have been carrying out specific studies for the past three years. In addition, other branch staff and contractors are seconded to complete short-term commodity studies from time to time.

During the period 1985-1988 many of the programs undertaken by the Industrial Minerals Subsection were funded under the Canada/British Columbia Mineral Development Agreement (MDA). These programs varied in scope from literature research and compilation to detailed site specific studies and regional investigations in the field. Increasing support of Geological Survey Branch activities by the Provincial government during the past few years has, in turn, led to increasing support for new industrial minerals projects.

The Industrial Minerals Subsection participates with the Mineral Policy Branch, and other agencies, in commodity market research. Similarly, cooperative or contracted analytical and metallurgical testing projects are carried out with CANMET, Geological Survey of Canada, universities, private laboratories and the Branch's own laboratory. In addition, the subsection maintains both commodity and property files and contributes to MINFILE, the Branch's computerized mineral inventory database.

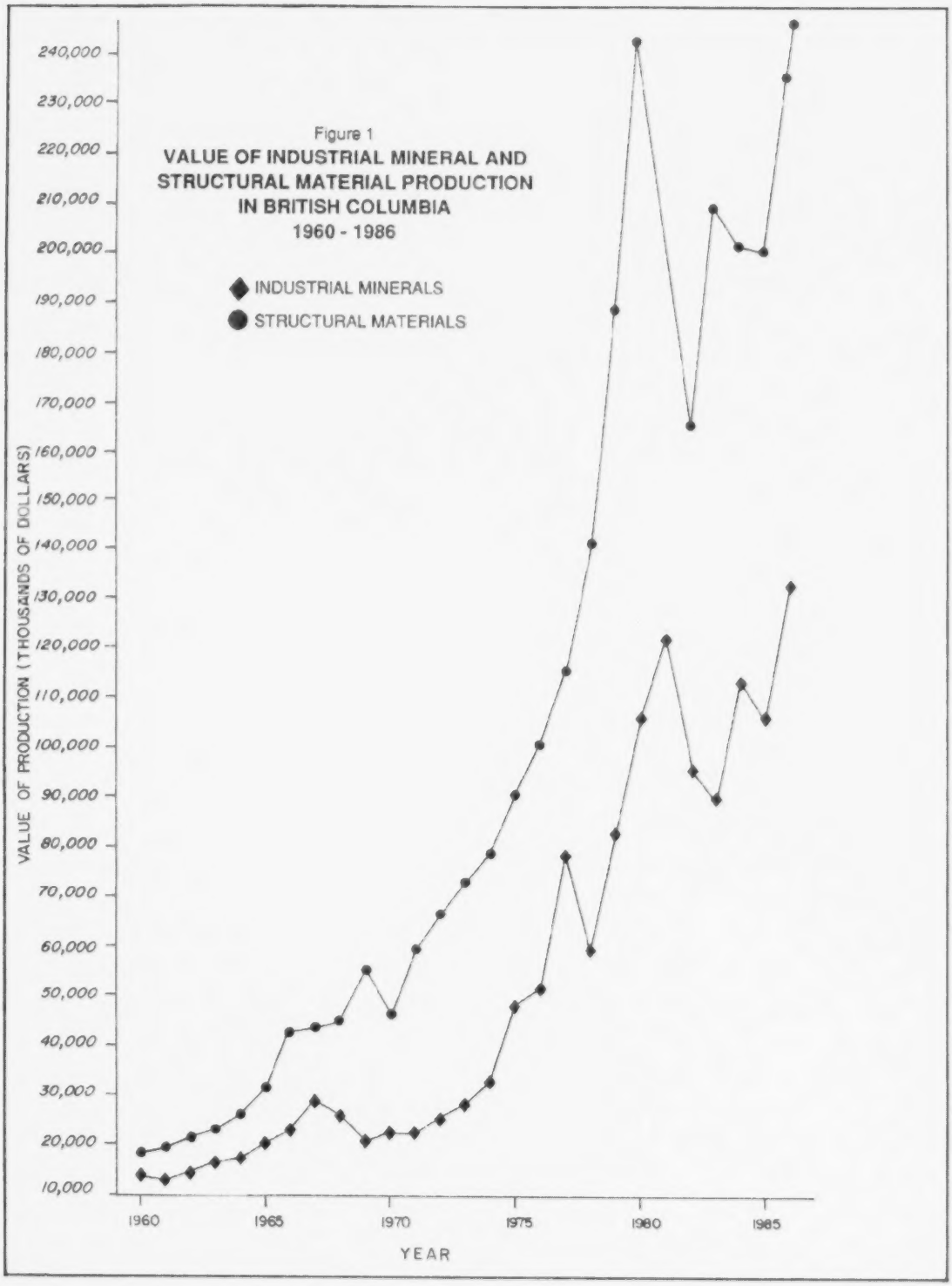


Figure 1
VALUE OF INDUSTRIAL MINERAL AND STRUCTURAL MATERIAL PRODUCTION IN BRITISH COLUMBIA 1960 - 1986
INDUSTRIAL MINERALS
STRUCTURAL MATERIALS
VALUE OF PRODUCTION (THOUSANDS OF DOLLARS)
240,000
230,000
220,000
210,000
200,000
190,000
180,000
170,000
160,000
150,000
140,000
130,000
120,000
110,000
100,000
90,000
80,000
70,000
60,000
50,000
40,000
30,000
20,000
10,000
1960
1965
1970
1975
1980
1985
YEAR

MAJOR PROJECTS

Industrial Mineral Map
(S.B. Butrenchuk, Z.D. Hora, G.V. White, K.D. Hancock, M.E. MacLean)

During 1987 staff of the Industrial Minerals Subsection compiled a map of industrial mineral occurrences in British Columbia. This 1:2 000 000-scale map was published in early 1988 as Open File 1988-13. Significant occurrences of 40 different commodities are represented on the map, including areas with potential for off-shore titanium placer deposits. Thirty industrial mineral producers and 79 past producers are also shown. Deposits and occurrences are plotted on a geological base modified from the Geological Survey of Canada's geological map of the Canadian Cordillera.

Carbonatites in British Columbia
(MDA Funded Project)
(J. Pell)

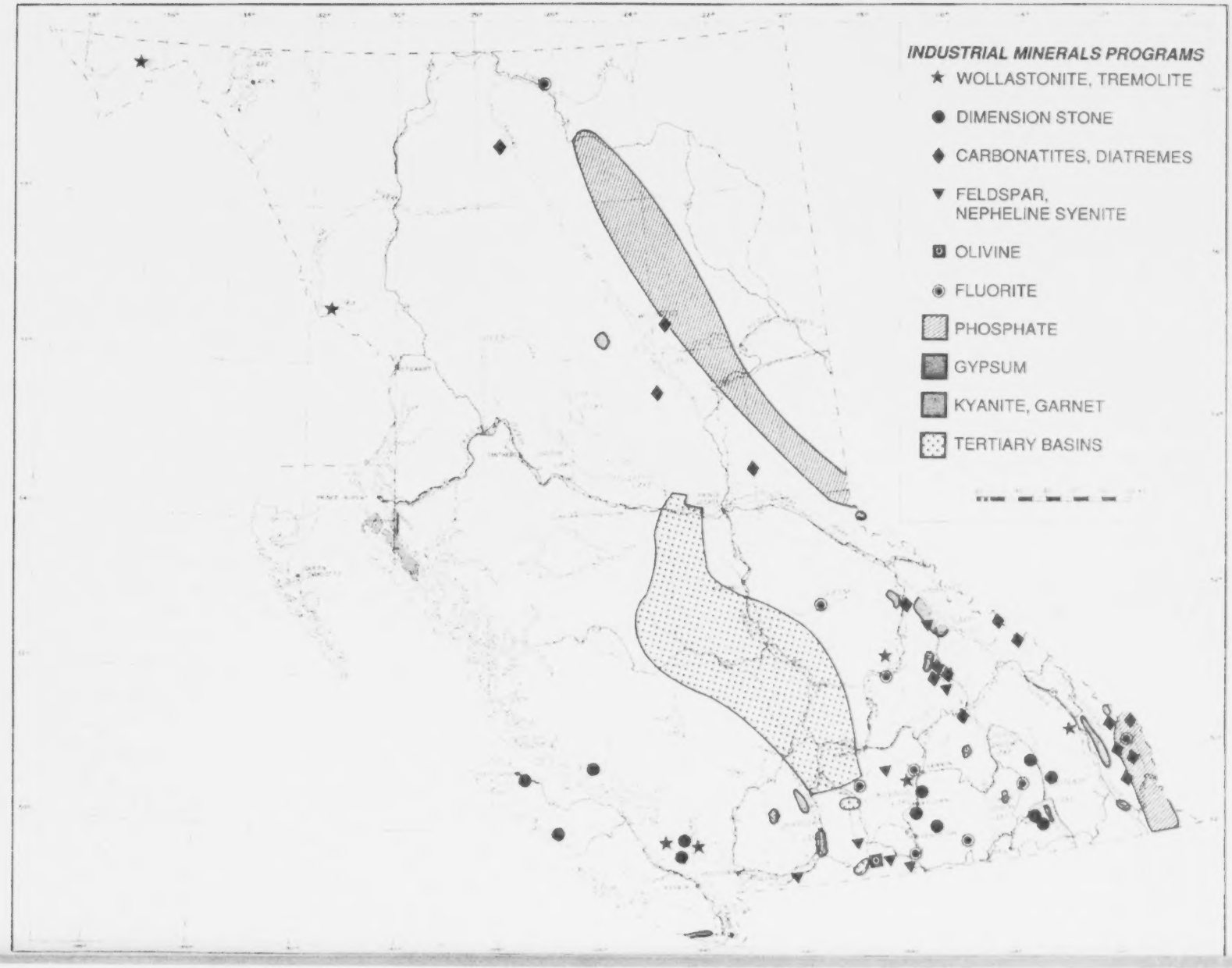
A four-year study of carbonatites in British Columbia important for their niobium, tantalum, rare earth element, yttrium, zirconium, vermiculite and phosphate potential, has been completed. These rocks occur in a broad belt parallel to and including the Rocky Mountain Trench. Carbonatites of two ages are recognized, Hadrynian (770 Ma) and Devono-Mississippian (350 Ma). Both intrusive and extrusive carbonatites of Hadrynian age occur, with the intrusive bodies commonly associated with nepheline syenites. Younger carbonatites are all intrusive and many are associated with alkaline syenites.

Many of the carbonatites are small sill-like bodies which have been complexly deformed and have limited economic potential due to their size. A number of large bodies are known, including the Mount Grace carbonatite tuff, which is traceable for more than 60 kilometres, the Ice River syenite complex, the Aley carbonatite complex, and the Kechika yttrium and rare-earth prospect.

Economically significant occurrences include: the Aley carbonatite which contains grades between 2/3 and 3/4 per cent Nb_2O_5; the Rock Canyon Creek (Deep Purple) showing, in which a mineralized zone over 1 kilometre long contains abundant fluorite and locally 1 to 2 per cent total rare-earth oxides; the Kechika yttrium and rare-earth property, which contains alkaline rocks outcropping along a 20-kilometre belt and which locally contain up to 0.90 per cent Y_2O_3 and abundant rare-earths; and, the Wicheeda Lake carbonatite which has anomalous niobium and rare-earth values.

Garnet and Kyanite in British Columbia
(MDA Funded Project)
(J. Pell)

Garnet, kyanite, sillimanite and andalusite are minerals found in contact with amphibolite facies regional metamorphic rocks. In British Columbia such metamorphic rocks are confined to two main belts; the eastern Omineca Belt and the western Coast Belt where they are accompanied by granitic plutons. Within these belts, pelitic metasedimentary rocks containing small percentages (less than 5 per cent) of these minerals are extremely abundant. Rocks containing significant concentrations of these minerals, however, are considerably less common. A number of areas do contain kyanite-group minerals and garnet in potentially economic concentrations, that is, greater than 10 to 15 per cent kyanite group minerals or greater than 25 per cent garnet. These mineralized areas are associated with core gneisses in the Shuswap and Monashee complexes, southern


INDUSTRIAL MINERALS PROGRAMS
WOLLASTONITE, TREMOLITE
DIMENSION STONE
CARBONATITES, DIATREMES
FELDSPAR, NEPHELINE SYENITE
OLIVINE
FLUORITE
PHOSPHATE
GYPSUM
KYANITE, GARNET
TERTIARY BASINS

and central British Columbia, in the Aiken Lake area of northern British Columbia, associated with roof pendants in the Coast Mountain batholiths near Yale and in the Prince Rupert area.

Areas enriched in these minerals should also have good potential for garnet and kyanite placers. Secondary deposits could be economic with considerably lower concentrations of the desired mineral species; as little as a few per cent may be all that is necessary, as opposed to 10 to 15 per cent kyanite or 25 to 40 per cent garnet in bedrock sources. Garnet-rich placers were recently reported by a prospector from the Revelstoke area.

These minerals have potential industrial applications, garnet predominantly as an abrasive and kyanite in refractories. Currently there is no production of these commodities in the Province of British Columbia, or elsewhere in Canada. Potential sources of kyanite and garnet are summarized in Open File 1988-26.

Fluorite in British Columbia
(MDA Funded Project)
(J. Pell)

Fluorite has commercial importance, largely in the metallurgical and chemical industries, while fluorine is a useful pathfinder element for a wide range of deposit types. Fluorspar mineralization in British Columbia occurs in a wide range of geological environments, tectonic settings and ages.

Five significant fluorspar prospects are known. The Rock Candy showing, a vein deposit of probable late Tertiary age associated with the Coryell intrusions, is in the southern Omineca Belt and has a production history. The Deep Purple prospect on Rock Canyon Creek, in the Foreland Belt, southern British Columbia, is a metasomatic replacement deposit interpreted to be related to a carbonatite-alkaline system. Mineralization at Deep Purple is probably Devono-Mississippian to Early Mississippian in age. The Rexspar deposit, which is located along the western margin of the Omineca Belt, south-central British Columbia, comprises separate zones of fluorspar and uranium mineralization of volcanogenic origin, related to alkaline tuffs. Mineralization at Rexspar is considered to be syngenetic with host rocks that are Devono-Mississippian. The Eaglet fluorspar property consists of veins and replacements of possible Cretaceous age, in the Quesnel Lake gneiss, at the western margin of the Omineca Belt in south-central British Columbia. The Foreland Belt of northern British Columbia contains the carbonate-hosted Liard Hot Springs fluorspar showings.

Numerous other showings occur throughout the province, but the major occurrences are confined to the Omineca and Foreland belts, which suggests that these areas are most favourable for exploration. Other deposits with abundant fluorspar are reported from the Atlin area in the Coast Belt; this area also warrants exploration attention. The Rexspar property appears to have the best immediate potential of the known fluorspar deposits. It is well located, close to road and rail and to the necessary infrastructure, has well-developed access and has significant proven reserves of minable grades near surface.

Phosphate Deposits in British Columbia
(MDA Funded Project)
(S.B. Butrenchuk)

Extensive sedimentary phosphate deposits occur at a number of stratigraphic horizons in the Rocky Mountains of British Columbia. These include the Cambrian Kechika Formation, the Mississippian Exshaw Formation, the Triassic Sulphur Mountain and Toad formations, the Permian

Ishbel Group and stratigraphic equivalents, and the Jurassic Fernie Formation. Only those deposits present in the Sulphur Mountain Formation, Ishbel Group and Fernie Formation are of significance.

Phosphate within the Sulphur Mountain Formation is restricted to the basal Whistler member. It is typically pelletal and ranges in thickness from 1 to 3 metres. Phosphate grade ranges from 6.0 to 28.0 per cent P_2O_5. In the Ishbel Group phosphate horizons are typically nodular although pelletal and conglomeratic varieties are also present. They range from 1 to 22 metres in thickness and the grades range from 2 to 29 per cent P_2O_5.

The most prominent phosphate deposits are at the base of the Fernie Formation where a phosphorite bed averaging 1.5 metres thick and grading 15 to 20 per cent P_2O_5 is present. This bed can be traced along strike for approximately 300 kilometres in southeastern British Columbia.

This study has been completed and preparation of the final report is in progress.

Gypsum Deposits in British Columbia
(S.B. Butrenchuk)

Gypsum ranks third in value of production behind asbestos and sulphur among industrial minerals produced in British Columbia. Production of gypsum comes primarily from two quarries located in the Stanford Range in southeastern British Columbia.

Gypsum deposits are known in four areas: extensive deposits occur in the Devonian Burnais Formation in the Stanford Range; in stratigraphically equivalent rocks in the Joffre Creek and Cranbrook areas; in the northeast, gypsum is present at a locality near the headwaters of Forgetmenot Creek along the Alberta boundary, where several beds of gypsum occur in the Triassic Starlight Evaporite member of the Whitehorse Formation.

A gypsum deposit occurring within or possibly intruding strata of Early Permian to Late Triassic age is located in the O'Connor River area in the northwest corner of the province. Elsewhere in the province gypsum was produced from the Falkland area for many years. Although some gypsum still remains most of the deeper part of the deposit consists of anhydrite.

This is a one year project scheduled for completion in March, 1989.

Magnesite in British Columbia
(MDA Funded Project)
(D.B. Grant)

Magnesite occurrences are common throughout British Columbia. The Mount Brussilof deposit, containing greater than 40 million tonnes, is associated with the carbonates of the Cathedral Formation and is reputed to be the largest and purest crystalline magnesite deposit in the western world. Magnesite has also been documented in the Proterozoic carbonates of the Mount Nelson Formation in southeastern British Columbia and in the Helikian Chischa Formation in northeastern British Columbia. Sedimentary quartzite-hosted magnesite is reported from the Cranbrook Formation. Similar quartzite stratigraphy occurs parallel to the Cambrian carbonate belt throughout eastern British Columbia. Impure magnesite, formed as an alteration product of Pennsylvanian to Triassic ultramafic rocks, is common throughout the Intermontane Belt.

A report on this project is available as Open File 1987-13.

Tertiary Volcanosedimentary Basins
(MDA Funded Project)
(P.B. Read)

Tertiary volcanosedimentary basins cover large areas of British Columbia. They are known to contain a limited number of widely distributed occurrences of clays, zeolites, pozzolans, diatomite and other industrial minerals such as beryllium and germanium.

This three-year regional assessment is designed to locate favourable stratigraphic intervals or geological environments for these minerals. In 1986 detailed investigation, of the stratigraphy and geological setting of occurrences, started near Princeton. The Cache Creek, Merritt Basin, Quilchena Outlier, Gang Ranch and Deadman River areas were studied during 1987 and 1988.

Several zeolite and bentonite occurrences were located in the vicinity of Princeton. Also, bentonite rich zones, up to 8 metres thick, occur in the Quilchena and Guichon valleys. Occurrences of bentonite, zeolite, volcanic glass and perlite have been located along the Fraser River fault between the Stein River and Gang Ranch.

Four Open File reports covering this work have been published. These are Open Files 1987-19, 1988-15, 1988-29 and 1988-30.

Talc and Pyrophyllite Deposits in British Columbia
(MDA Funded Project)
(M.E. MacLean)

Talc occurs in association with both magnesium carbonate rocks and altered ultrabasic rocks, both of which are common throughout British Columbia. Several favourable hosts were identified in this study. Pyrophyllite is a relatively rare mineral found in association with altered acid volcanic rocks. Talc is not currently produced in the province, although the mineral is consumed in significant amounts by the pulp and paper industry. Demand is met by imports, mostly from Montana. Several geologically favourable areas in British Columbia offer potential for high quality talc which meets pulp and paper industry specifications. Talc and pyrophyllite are also used in ceramics and refractories, and pyrophyllite may substitute for talc in some pulp and paper applications.

This report is available as Open file 1988-19.

Sand and Gravel Study 1985
Transportation Corridors and Populated Areas
(Z.D. Hora)

This report, which is a follow-up of an earlier 1980 study of aggregate supply-demand and availability of producers for the Fraser lowland and Greater Vancouver area, reviews aggregate resources in the British Columbia interior. It discusses production centres, supply and demand problems, market areas, distribution patterns, and the availability and potential of the sand and gravel resources in five major regions: the Thompson and Okanagan basins, the Columbia-Kootenay basin, the Central Interior plateau, the Peace River area and the Skeena and Kitimat valleys. The report is available as Open File 1988-27.

Peatland Inventory of British Columbia
(MDA Funded Project)
(D.E. Maynard)

Information regarding the distribution and quality of the peat resources in British Columbia has been compiled from a large number of published and unpublished reports prepared mostly as a part of soil studies, landform or surficial geology maps. In total, seventy-three of the eighty-four map sheets covering British Columbia at a scale of 1:250 000 contain information on peat deposits and are included as part of the final report. Three regions of the province are identified by the peatland inventory having high potential for peat resources: central and north coast, Central Interior plateau and northeastern Great plains. This study identifies peatland locations and provides a valuable starting point for assessing development potential. The compiled data will allow industry users to assess the development potential of peatland areas with respect to accessibility, and proximity to transportation routes and potential markets.

Potential for horticulture peat has been identified in the northeastern and northwestern parts of the province. Fuel peat has potential in all three regions. In situ, agricultural use of peatlands is proposed for the northeast as well as the Central Interior plateau.

This report is available as Open File 1988-33.

Assessment of British Columbia Sulphur Potential
(J. Thompson)

Native sulphur occurrences associated with gypsum and anhydrite evaporite deposits have, over the years, been recorded in drill hole logs by the oil and gas industry. The 1987 project reviewed 600 drill hole logs which contained evidence of intersections of Devonian Muskeg Formation evaporite and adjacent Slave Point Formation reef facies. In total, five major (intersections of up to 20 feet of solid sulphur) and twenty-two minor sulphur showings were documented. Native sulphur was also identified in association with Triassic evaporites, but no systematic survey of drilling in this environment has been undertaken.

Available information indicates a potential for Frasch sulphur deposits in the northeastern part of British Columbia.

Silica Occurrences in British Columbia
(MDA Funded Project)
(G. Foye)

Hardrock silica occurrences in British Columbia are divided into three deposits types: quartzites, vein and pegmatites. Quartzites represent the most important potential for economic silica in the province. The most significant sources are the Mount Wilson Formation and Nonda Quartzite. These quartzite units occur in the Rocky Mountains east of the Rocky Mountain Trench. Potential sources of silica also occur in the Quartzite Range Formation. Vein occurrences are present in the south-central and east-central part of the province, while pegmatite deposits are restricted to the Okanagan and West Kootenay regions.

There are currently two producers of silica, both of which are producing from the Mount Wilson quartzite near Golden. There has also been past production from a pegmatite quartz stock near the town of Oliver. Silica produced is primarily used for ferrosilicon, glass sand, sand-blasting, foundry sand, filter media sand and occasionally as a smelter flux

This report is available as Open File 1987-15.

Feldspar and Nepheline Syenite in British Columbia
(G.V. White)

In 1987 a study of feldspar and nepheline syenite occurrences in British Columbia was undertaken. Nine sites with varying geological environment were studied in detail. Field studies were subsequently followed by mineral processing tests at CANMET laboratories of Energy, Mines and Resources Canada, in Ottawa. Results of this study indicate that four of the sites are capable of producing feldspathic products which meet commercial specifications for use in glass/ceramic manufacturing.

Feldspathic sand from Scuzzy Creek is more apt for glass applications while pegmatites from Lumby and Hellroaring Creek and nepheline syenite from Trident Mountain could be used for both glass and ceramic applications. Preliminary results are published in Geological Fieldwork 1988, Paper 1989-1.

Wollastonite Occurrences in British Columbia
(G.V. White)

Although wollastonite is often present in skarn deposits throughout British Columbia there has been no record of production in the province. In 1988 an investigation of wollastonite deposits was undertaken. This project, consisting of geological mapping and sampling, identified five sites with good potential to contain mineable reserves of wollastonite. A deposit near Sechelt, which has probable reserves of 291,000 tonnes, appears to offer the best potential for production in the near future. Other occurrences with potential include the Little Billy Mine, Fintry Point and Horsethief Creek deposits and the Silence Lake Mine. Samples from each of these localities are presently being tested by CANMET in Ottawa. These tests will determine recovery, brightness, aspect ratio (the ratio between length of the crystal and its width), loss on ignition values, iron content and other chemical and petrographic parameters important for industrial applications.

Results for this study are scheduled for release as an Open File in 1990.

Olivine in the Tulameen Ultramafic Complex
(MDA Funded Project)
(G.V. White)

Olivine used in British Columbia and western Canada is currently imported from Washington State. In 1986 a study of the Tulameen ultramafic complex in south-central British Columbia was undertaken to determine if the dunite component of the complex would be suitable for refractory and foundry sand applications. Within the complex three zones containing fresh dunite were identified by the study. Subsequent testing by CANMET of a 300-kilogram sample collected from one of these zones indicated that unserpentinized Tulameen dunite has potential as a foundry sand. Preliminary results of this study have been published in Geological Fieldwork 1986 and 1987. The final report is in preparation.

Dimension Stone - Opportunities for Development
(MDA Funded Project)
(G.V. White)

At the turn of the century, British Columbia produced a wide variety of quality dimension stone for domestic and foreign markets. The industry flourished until the 1930s when many of the quarries closed. Today, most dimension stone used in the province is imported and only minor amounts are supplied from local sources near Beaverdell and on Jervis and Knight Inlets.

The use of dimension stone as a crushed aggregate and as decorative panels is increasing worldwide. A high percentage of the market is supplied by Italy, Spain, and Portugal in Europe, and from Taiwan, South Africa and Brazil. There is an excellent opportunity to increase the use of British Columbia stone, both domestically and as an export product to the U.S. and Pacific Rim countries. The construction of a first class finishing plant, "CANROC" located in Delta, British Columbia, the only processing plant west of the Mississippi River, enhances the viability of developing quarries in the province.

Recent evaluation of past producing quarries has identified eleven sites with good potential to produce quality dimension stone for exterior use. In addition, a few quarries have stone with excellent potential for interior or ornamental use.. A set of polished, honed and flamed samples from each of the abandoned quarries is now available for viewing. Sites with potential for dimension stone are identified in Information Circular 1988-6.

Magnetite Source Potential
(Kirk D. Hancock)

Magnetite is an important industrial mineral, used as a heavy medium in coal preparation plants. It is currently produced in British Columbia, from a stockpile with limited reserves, at the now-closed Craigmont Mine near Merritt. All production is used in coal processing plants in western Canada and Centralia, Washington and, as the stockpile reserves are limited, a new source will be required in the near future. The present market volume is in excess of 50 000 tonnes per year.

This study documents all major magnetite occurrences in British Columbia, both hardrock and tailings. Each listed occurrence has a concise geological description and a short history. The deposit information has been grouped by genetic type and geographic location. Skarn deposits provide the best potential source of magnetite. Tailings from some base metal operations may also represent a significant source of magnetite.

Product specifications for its application are outlined and potential markets and alternative sources of supply are briefly discussed. Included are 47 page-sized geological and locational maps as well as a map of B.C. at approximately 1:2 000 000 scale identifying all deposits. The information is published as Open File 1988-28.

OTHER STUDIES

The Geological Survey Branch has and is providing support for university research on the following theses:

(1) Comparative Mineralogy of Three Ultramafic Breccia Diatremes in S.E. British Columbia - Cross, Blackfoot and HP, by Olga J. Ijewliw, Queen's University (in progress).

(2) The Aley Carbonatite Complex, Northern Rocky Mountains, British Columbia (94B/5), by Urs K. Mader, The University of British Columbia; (completed).

(3) Horticultural Applications of Princeton Zeolites and Fernie Basin Phosphates, by Virginia Marcille, University of Guelph; (in progress).

(4) Structure, Stratigraphy and Alteration of Cretaceous and Tertiary Strata in the Gang Ranch Area, Southern British Columbia, by K. Green, University of Calgary; (in progress).

MARKET STUDIES

The following market studies sponsored under the Canada/British Columbia Mineral Development Agreement (MDA) have been completed:

(1) McVey, H.: A Study of Markets for British Columbia's Nepheline Syenite and Feldspathic Minerals, MDA Report 4, British Columbia Energy, Mines and Petroleum Resources, 92 pages.

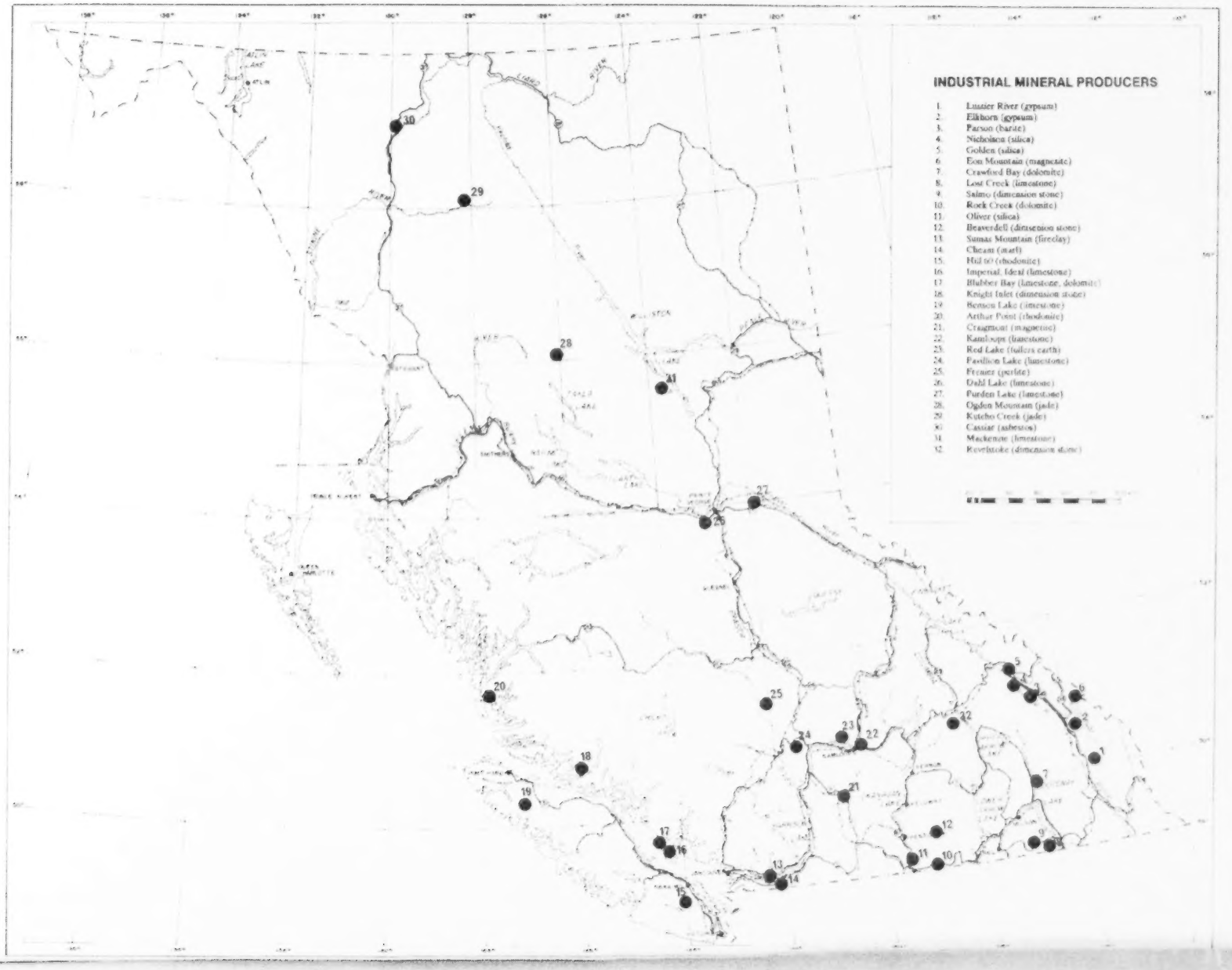
(2) Queenstake Resources Ltd.: Marketing Study of British Columbia's Gypsum in the Pacific Rim Area of North America, 200 pages.

These reports are available from:

Island Blue Print Co. Ltd.
905 Fort Street
Victoria, British Columbia
V8V 3K3
Telephone (604) 385-9786

FUTURE PROJECTS

In 1989, in addition to the programs presently in progress or recently completed, studies are proposed for perlite, pozzolans, vermiculite, limestone, dolomite, barite, magnesite and volatile rich "specialty" granites. The industrial mineral map of British Columbia will be updated to include genetic types for the various commodities as well as an indication of the size potential for the occurrences.


INDUSTRIAL MINERAL PRODUCERS
1. Lustier River (gypsum)
2. Elkhorn (gypsum)
3. Parson (barite)
4. Nicholson (silica)
5. Golden (silica)
6. Eon Mountain (magnesite)
7. Crawford Bay (dolomite)
8. Lost Creek (limestone)
9. Salmo (dimension stone)
10. Rock Creek (dolomite)
11. Oliver (silica)
12. Beaverdell (dimension stone)
13. Sumas Mountain (fireclay)
14. Cheam (marl)
15. Hill 60 (rhodonite)
16. Imperial Ideal (limestone)
17. Blubber Bay (limestone, dolomite)
18. Knight Inlet (dimension stone)
19. Benson Lake (limestone)
20. Arthur Point (rhodonite)
21. Craigmont (magnetite)
22. Kamloops (limestone)
23. Red Lake (fullers earth)
24. Pavilion Lake (limestone)
25. Fennes (perlite)
26. Dahl Lake (limestone)
27. Purden Lake (limestone)
28. Ogden Mountain (jade)
29. Kutcho Creek (jade)
30. Cassiar (asbestos)
31. Mackenzie (limestone)
32. Revelstoke (dimension stone)

RECENT PUBLICATIONS

Butrenchuk, S.B.: Phosphate in Southeastern British Columbia (82G and 93J), Open File 1987-16, 103 pages.

Butrenchuk, S.B., Hora, Z.D., White, G.V, Hancock, K.D., MacLean, M.E.: Industrial Mineral Occurrences in British Columbia, Open File 1988-13.

Foye, G.: Silica Occurrences in British Columbia, Open File 1987-15, 55 pages.

Grant, B.: Magnesite, Brucite and Hydromagnesite Occurrences in British Columbia, Open File 1987-13, 80 pages.

Hancock, K.D.: Magnetite Occurrences in British Columbia, Open File 1988-28, 153 pages.

Hora, Z.D.: Sand and Gravel Study 1985, Transportation Corridors and Populated Areas, Open File 1988-27, 41 pages.

MacLean, M.E.: Talc and Pyrophyllite in British Columbia, Open File 1988-19, 108 pages.

Maynard, D.E.: Peatland Inventory of British Columbia, Open File 1988-33, in press.

Pell, J.: Alkaline Ultrabasic Rocks in British Columbia: Carbonatites, Nepheline Syenites, Kimberlites, Ultramafic Lamprophyres and Related rocks, Open File 1987-17, 109 pages.

Pell, J.: The Industrial Mineral Potential of Kyanite and Garnet in British Columbia, Open File 1988-26, 43 pages.

Read, P.B.: Tertiary Stratigraphy and Industrial Minerals, Princeton and Tulameen Basins, British Columbia (92H/2,7,8,9,10), Open File 1987-19, 1 map with notes.

Read, P.B.: Tertiary Stratigraphy and Industrial Minerals, Merritt Basin, British Columbia, Open File 1988-15, 2 maps with accompanying notes.

Read, P.B.: Tertiary Stratigraphy and Industrial Minerals: Fraser River, Lytton to Gang Ranch, British Columbia, Open File 1988-29, 1:50 000 maps with notes.

Read P.B.: Tertiary Stratigraphy and Industrial Minerals, Cache Creek (92I/14), British Columbia, Open File 1988-30, 1:50 000 map with notes.

White, G.V. and Hora, Z.D.: Dimension Stone in British Columbia, Information Circular 1988-6, 32 pages.

In addition, several talks have been presented by the Industrial Minerals Subsection. Copies of Preprints for the following can be obtained through the Geological Survey Branch:

(1) Butrenchuk, S.B.: Petrology and Geochemistry of Phosphate Deposits in British Columbia, CIM Annual Convention, Edmonton, Alberta, May, 1988.

(2) Hancock, K.D.: Magnetite Source Potential for the Coal Processing Industry in British Columbia, District 6 CIM Meeting, Fernie, B.C., September, 1988.

(3) Hora, Z.D.: Industrial Minerals in British Columbia - Opportunities and Markets, District 6 CIM Meeting, Fernie, B.C., September, 1988.

(4) Hora, Z.D.: Industrial Minerals in British Columbia - New Developments, New Discoveries and New Opportunities, CIM Annual Convention, Edmonton, Alberta, May, 1988.

(5) Hora, Z.D.: Dimension Stone in British Columbia, CIM Annual General Meeting, Toronto, Ontario, May, 1987.

(6) White, G.V.: Feldspar and Olivine - Two Potential Commodities for British Columbia, CIM Annual Convention, Edmonton, Alberta, May, 1988.

(7) White, G.V.: Feldspar, Olivine, Wollastonite and Dimension Stone - Opportunities for Development in British Columbia, District 6 CIM Meeting, Fernie, B.C., September, 1988.

(8) White, G.V. and Hora, Z.D.: Evaluation of Long-Abandoned Dimension Stone Quarries in British Columbia - New Development Opportunities, Pacific Northwest Metals and Minerals Conference, Portland, Oregon, 1987.

INFORMATION SOURCES

For copies of the **Open File** Reports, please contact:

Maps B.C.
110, 553 Superior Street
Victoria, B.C.
V8V 1X5
Telephone (604) 387-1441

Articles on various commodities also appear in Geological Fieldwork 1986, 1987 and 1988 and Exploration in British Columbia 1985, 1986, 1987 and 1988. Copies of these **Papers** may be obtained from:

Crown Publications Inc.
P.O. Box 1471
Victoria, B.C.
V8W 2X2
Telephone (604) 386-4636

Additional information on the industrial mineral resources of British Columbia may be obtained from:

Industrial Minerals Subsection
Geological Survey Branch
Ministry of Energy, Mines and Petroleum Resources
300-756 Fort Street
Victoria, B.C.
V8V 1X4

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